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Dr. George B. Cressey is Chairman of the Department of Geography at Syracuse University, and President of the International Geographical Union. This article grows out of a professional trip to twelve countries of Latin America, seen against the background of his wide travels in Asia. Professor Cressey is widely known for his volumes on China, the Soviet Union, and Asia as a whole.

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Dr. Nelson received his Ph.D. from the University of Chicago in 1949. He is at present an instructor of Geography at the University of California, Los Angeles, where he specializes in Urban Geography.

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Dr. Trevor Lloyd is Chairman of the Department of Geography, Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire. He holds a doctorate in Geography from Clark University and from the University of Bristol, England. As a student of the geography of high latitudes, he has contributed to the JOURNAL articles on northern Canada. During 1944-45, Dr. Lloyd was Canadian Consul in Greenland, and in 1949 studied Greenland affairs with the assistance of the Danish Government in Copenhagen. Last year he did field work in Arctic Scandinavia.

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Mr. Dix is on leave of absence from Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, where he is an assistant professor of geography. He is working toward his doctorate at Clark University where he received his Masters Degree.

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VOLUME XLIX NOVEMBER, 1950 NUMBER 8

ASIA LOOKS AT LATIN AMERICA*

GEORGE B. CRESSEY
Syracuse University

During January and February of 1950 I had the opportunity of visiting the geographers of 13 countries in Latin America. I went on business for the International Geographical Union and had little time for professional study, but I want to record a few observations which came to me as an Asiatic geographer—and I hasten to express my appreciation to the many colleagues in Latin America who helped me to secure a hasty glimpse of their countries.

My title is "Asia Looks at Latin America" or more properly "An Asiatic Looks at Latin America." It would be enough to merely describe a few of the many high points of my trip, all of it by air, but I venture to do so against the background of my wanderings in Asia. You may have never thought of similarities between these two continents; the one old, the other new; and I do not wish to force any comparison. Rather, I want to report impressions of Latin America in comparison with my experiences in Asia.

If you are looking for the exotic, you may be disappointed in South America, especially along the east coast. It might well be renamed New Europe, or South U.S.A. Because of the bulge of Brazil, Rio is closer to Lisbon by boat than to New York, but by air the situation is reversed. One finds United States products everywhere. Only along the west coast, in the lands which had an Indian population, are there interesting arts and crafts; or historic depth. Asia has its Europeanized port cities such as Bombay

* This paper was presented at the meetings of the Association of American Geographers, Worcester, Massachusetts, April, 1950.

or Shanghai, but the Orient is ever near and obvious. I found much fascinating geography in Latin America, but I would not exchange it for Asia. The Andes are superb, but the Tien Shan or Karakorum are better. The Atacama is desolate, but the Taklamakan is more so.

Some Comparisons

May I list several minor contrasts or comparisons, and then come to a few of greater significance.

While Asia has only twice the area of Latin America, its population is fifteen times greater. I have not checked data on arable land, but the contrast may be less since the average standard of livelihood is lower in the Orient.

The city in Latin America which impressed me most for the unspoiled charm of its Spanish colonial architecture was Lima. In a curious way it reminded me of Peking, where the choicest of Chinese culture is preserved. For another comparison, Panama reminded me of Singapore; both crossroads of world commerce. You might not have grouped Mexico City with Shanghai, but I found remarkable similarities in their foundation problems. Both are built on mud, and the older buildings, such as the Palace of Fine Arts in the former or the 13 story apartment house near the French Club in the latter, are slowly settling. Each might learn from the other as to techniques of sinking piles.

Those of you who know India are familiar with the hydroelectric developments near Bombay where eastward flowing drainage on the Deccan is ponded and diverted to drop over the Western Ghats. I found a similar situation at Santos where water from the inward sloping plateau is directed down the Brazilian escarpment. The resulting electricity is used as far away as Rio. Both escarpments have exceptionally heavy rainfall, with as much as 240 inches in one year back of Santos.

No geographer can take more than a superficial look at the west coast of South America without repeated awareness of the Humboldt Current, a phenomenon which is more of an upwelling of cold water than an actual current. Asia has no such influence on its climate, but it too has oceanographic interests in the Kuro Siwo and the monsoon drifts of the Indian Ocean.

I did not visit the new blast furnace and steel mill at Volta Redando, but it is clear that Jamshedpur and Kuznets place Asia far ahead in iron and steel production. Nor did I have an oppor-

tunity to compare rubber production at Belle Terra with that in Malaya. Puerto Rico has a remarkable development of karst topography, but it must take second place to that of Kweichow and southern China.

But lest you suspect that I am trying to make a case for Asia, let us take a look at urbanization. To a hasty traveller such as I was this winter, one of the most striking impressions is the spectacular

FIG. 1. Sao Paulo in southern Brazil is one of the most rapidly growing cities in Latin America. The tallest building is the 26 story Bank of the State.

growth of the cities in Latin America. I visited 16 cities with a combined population of 15 million; four of these had two million or more apiece. Dozens of new apartment houses or office buildings are in construction, many of them upwards of twenty stories in height. The building of the Ministry of Education in Rio is about the most modern in the world. You will see a replica in the new United Nations building in New York City. For an Asiatic comparison, there is nothing to match Rio and Sao Paulo unless it be

Tokyo and Osaka. Buenos Aires with its four million is far more modern and prosperous than Shanghai with its four and a half million. The material advantages on the side of Latin America appear equally obvious in smaller towns.

Both in Havana and elsewhere in Cuba I was repeatedly reminded of Manila and the Philippine Islands. Each city has its old intra-muros; each island has its sugar cane and tobacco, each has strong remnants of Spanish occupation.

Other similarities came to me between the landscapes of Rio Sao Francisco in Brazil and the Godavari in India, or the climate of Mexico City and Kunming. One may find contrasts between the untouched forests of the Yenisei and the Guianas, and between the marine tropics of Indonesia and the continental tropics of Brazil.

Belem vs Shanghai

May I now suggest four comparisons in more detail. Belem is a city of 300,000 near the mouth of the Amazon. Its analogue is Shanghai near the mouth of the Yangtze with 15 times the population. The Belem U.S. Consular district, which includes the entire Amazon basin, numbers but 150 United States citizens, while 30 times as many normally live in the Yangtze Valley. The entire Amazon population is but one and a half million, while the Yangtze drainage basin counts 150 million. What makes a great seaport? Why are these two cities and rivers in such contrast? Both rivers are admirable for navigation, but while the Yangtze may be the world's busiest, the Amazon's traffic may be not much more than that of the rivers of Siberia. I might go on to compare soils and minerals, but you have already anticipated the contrasts in climate.

Will Belem ever match Shanghai? It is growing and will obviously become more important. Someday man may conquer the Brazilian tropics, but their soils are so poor that it does not seem likely that they will ever duplicate the productivity or population of central China. The areas differ in the amount of European capital and initiative which they have absorbed, and the domestic markets are in sharp contrast. If compared on the basis of simple maps, the two rivers and their two cities have much in common, but when one looks at rainfall and temperature, or soils and vegetation, major contrasts appear. Central China has an uncomfortable summer, like the Amazon, but it also has a stimulating winter climate which is lacking in northern Brazil.

Titicaca vs Koko Nor

Let me change from the tropical lowlands to the Altiplano. The airport at LaPaz lies at 13,404 feet, the highest in the world, and its runway must be one of the longest. Flying over Bolivia brings many reminders of Tibet, but with surprising contrasts in land use. Let me compare Lake Titicaca with Koko Nor. The Bolivian lake has an elevation of 12,500 feet; its Tibetan counterpart is 2,000 feet lower. Koko Nor is beautiful but desolate. I doubt

Fig. 2. Thousands of Indians live along the shores of Lake Titicaca in Bolivia. Cultivation is limited to the lower slopes.

whether a single tree is to be found around its shores. There is absolutely no cultivation, and not a town or settlement other than a few nomadic encampments. I did not find a single building around the eastern end. There is grazing of a sort, but the few herds are miles apart. There is no fishing for there is not a single boat. An island monastery is accessible only across the ice in winter.

Although Titicaca is 2,000 feet higher, its shores have excellent agriculture. The population must number tens of thousands. While trees were formerly lacking, so that people built balsa reed boats, there are today groves of eucalyptus. I found many motor boats and there are four steamships. Bolivia is extensively cultivated

up to 13,000 feet, and even to 14,400, whereas the Koko Nor area of Tibet has few fields above 10,000 feet. There is nothing in Tibetan history to match the great Inca culture of the Altiplano, or its predecessor the Tiahuanaco. The branch of the Pan American Highway which leads to Titicaca is nothing wonderful, but it is far ahead of any road to Koko Nor. And Titicaca is reached by two railways, and has delightful resort hotels.

Koko Nor is a salt lake yet freezes over. Titicaca is fresh water and does not freeze despite its greater elevation. Both native

FIG. 3. Koko Nor lies in a desolate basin of northeastern Tibet. Trees are entirely absent and cultivation is impossible; only a few wandering Tibetans inhabit its shores.

peoples are colorful in their dress, both areas are very photographic. Near Titicaca is a large city, LaPaz, with a market for the fresh vegetables and wool of the lake area; no comparable outlet is available for the products of Koko Nor.

Both lakes lie near the upper altitude of local land usability, the one is just above, the other just below. Why is the higher lake the one which is more developed? Proximity to the ocean is a dubious asset. Both areas have long been settled. Titicaca may have twice the precipitation, but it is limited in both cases. The answer appears to lie in latitude. Titicaca is but 16 degrees from the equator, while Koko Nor is 37 degrees.

Atacama vs Taklamakan

Let us now turn to two of the world's driest deserts, the Atacama and the Taklamakan. Both are as nearly without rain as any places on earth. There is not a twig of vegetation or a blade of grass. Spectacular sand dunes characterize parts of both deserts; elsewhere the wind has swept away all movable material. It may be worth while to emphasize that the perfection of crescentic barchons is found only with minimum amounts of sand moving over a desert pavement. And yet both areas bear dramatic witness to the work of running water. Hill and mountain sides are trenched with sharp canyons. Broad alluvial fans stream onto the lowlands. Playa basins show encircling shore lines. Climatic changes have undoubtedly occurred, but these are also the phenomena of today.

What happens when it does rain?—for no area is truly rainless. The statistical average may be less than an inch a year, but this may mean that once in a decade there are 5 inches in a day. There is then no vegetation to check rain off, and catastrophic erosion may occur within a few hours. In such an environment, all of life struggles ceaselessly against aridity. The nitrate port of Antofagasta in northern Chile drinks water from Bolivia, brought in a six inch pipeline. In the Taklamakan water likewise comes long distances, not by pipes but via underground tunnels or karez.

Estancia San Pedro

One of the high points in my trip to Latin America was the visit to a great Estancia in Uruguay, one hundred miles north of Montevideo. Here I found an 85,000 acre ranch with 40,000 sheep, 14,000 Hereford cattle, and 1,000 horses. There is nothing like this in the Orient and I was puzzled as to any Asiatic analogue. Perhaps the best comparison would be a collective farm I visited in Soviet Middle Asia near Samarkand. The differences are obvious, but there are similarities. The Uruguayan estancia employed 30 families plus 25 single men, with profit sharing, while the Soviet cooperative had 140 families. Samarkand is drier, with some irrigated cultivation. Both are naturally treeless except along the streams. Both have rich soils. I was royally entertained at each, but in very different style and with quite different food. Estancia San Pedro has a magnificent manor house, with hospitality in the

best international style; it is the center of a small empire. The Samarkand collective has no palatial buildings but I was given a variety of food which I shall probably remember longer. The 85,000 acres of the estancia are divided into 60 fields or potraros, a few of them in cultivation, others aforested, but most devoted to pasture. I saw not a cowboy, altho there may be some, instead there are jeeps. Elsewhere in Uruguay, as in Argentina, these great ranches are in process of subdivision into smaller farms. The

FIG. 4. The short grass pastures of Uruguay enable Uruguay to be a large producer of beef. Here are some of the 14,000 Hereford cattle of Estancia San Pedro.

same process has already taken place in the longer settled lands of Soviet Middle Asia.

What then does an Asiatic geographer see as he visits Latin America? These similarities are in part superficial tho suggestive. Latin America is new, the Orient is old. One continent is densely populated, with a culture alien to our own; the other sparsely inhabited, but with familiar types of living. Both offer fascinating geographic problems in abundance. You will understand me if I choose Asia.

URBAN GEOGRAPHY IN THE HIGH SCHOOL?*

HOWARD J. NELSON
University of California, Los Angeles

At mid-century the urban areas of the world are increasing in numbers and in size. Modern cities have become workshops of an industrial society, nerve centers of a vast and delicate service and commercial mechanism, foci of transportation, seats of governmental authority and hearts of contemporary cultural activity. In the United States cities have become the home of a majority of our citizens. We are indeed living in an urban age.

In recognition of the growing importance and increasing complexity of the modern city, the various social sciences are developing specialized branches to investigate the nature of these unique structures. The systematic branches, studying similar classes of phenomena, are developing urban sociology, urban land economics and municipal government. Historians are investigating the urban scene, from their viewpoint of association in time. Geographers, with their special interest in spatial associations, are beginning to develop urban geography "concerned with man's dynamic pattern of urban occupance in its total setting."

In the past, activity in the specialized branches of the social sciences has taken place largely on the college level. Today, secondary schools, reflecting the civilization of which they are a part, are giving increasing attention to the investigation of urban areas. However, the discipline whose viewpoint will be used in carrying on these studies has not yet been definitely chosen.

High school civics courses have for a long time considered the problems of urban government and society. Recent modifications in these courses seem to indicate a trend away from an emphasis on government and sociology toward geography. Atlanta, Boston and Los Angeles have adopted new high school texts devoted to the analyses of urban areas. The content of these new texts bears little resemblance to the sort of material commonly handled by civics teachers. Emphasis is now on the location, forms, functions, problems and plans of cities—everyday grist for the urban geographers' mill.

This new development poses several questions worthy of con-

* Presented at the annual meeting of the California Council of Geography Teachers, Stanford University, May 6, 1950.

sideration by members of our profession:

1. Exactly what is the nature of these new courses as outlined in their textbooks?

2. Is this really urban geography?

3. If so, is urban geography a logical and worthwhile contribution of our discipline to the high school curriculum?

4. What action, if any, should be taken by geographers in the light of these facts?

It is the purpose of this paper to consider the above four questions. Let us begin by reviewing the three new textbooks.[1]

Building Atlanta's Future is designed for students at the eighth or ninth grade level, in the schools of that city. The study begins in the best geographic tradition—the area is delimited, the city is placed in its regional setting, and the physical and human resource-base of the tributary area is analyzed. The present population of Atlanta, the economic activities of the people, and the physical layout of the city in which they live and work, is considered in some detail. A third section discusses some of the urban problems of Atlanta: transportation, water supply, sanitation, housing, slums, suburbs, education, recreation and social services. Final chapters point out the need for both citizen understanding and action in planning for the solution of Atlanta's problems.

Surging Cities, a text used in the Boston schools at the twelfth grade level, is the work of city planners. The first half of the book considers cities in general, and presents material appropriate for students of cities anywhere. Sections on the historical evolution of cities, the growth of five American cities, and the city plans of Peking, Paris, Washington and London furnish specific, if brief, examples of important urban areas. Attention is given to a systematic analysis of residential areas, commercial centers, industrial districts, internal and external transportation patterns, civic centers and public services.

Part Two of *Surging Cities* is concerned with planning for greater Boston. The present physical city and population is

[1] John E. Ivey, Jr., Nicholas J. Demerath, Woodrow W. Breland. *Building Atlanta's Future*. Chapel Hill, The University of North Carolina Press, 1948. 305 pages. $3.50.

Theodore T. McCrosky, Charles A. Blessing and J. Rose McKeever. *Surging Cities*. Boston, Boston Development Committee, Inc., 1948. 287 pages. $2.25 (paper cover). $3.00 (cloth).

Mel Scott. *Metropolitan Los Angeles: One Community*. Los Angeles, The Haynes Foundation, 1949. 192 pages. $5.00.

analyzed briefly. A discussion of the various urban elements previously analyzed systematically, this time with reference to the Boston area, completes the volume. Each item is discussed in terms of present problems and planned solutions. (Excellent maps and stimulating aerial photographs are present in lavish abundance.)

Metropolitan Los Angeles: One Community, is a somewhat similar book, written by a planner, Mel Scott. It seems destined for widespread use in the twelfth grade Social Studies programs in the schools of the Los Angeles area.

The book begins with a brief survey of modern Los Angeles, describing the gross land use pattern and its relation to the natural landscape. A consideration of the development of the urban area from the arrival of the Spaniards to the present day follows. The founding of the numerous towns, activities of individual promoters, as well as the changing economy and expanding area are emphasized.

A chapter considers the present day population in terms of origins, occupations, income, social characteristics and areal distribution. The economic activities of Los Angeles are then analyzed with emphasis on recent developments, employment and location.

The remainder of the work treats the special problems of metropolitan Los Angeles: water supply, energy resources, waste disposal (including smog), land use patterns, transit, housing, residential neighborhoods, schools, other cultural institutions, recreational areas, community services, and the master plan.

To the extent that the courses follow the texts, the foregoing is a description of the subject matter now included in the curriculum of the high schools of at least three of our large cities. Are courses of this sort, tho labled something else, really urban geography? What, anyway, is urban geography?

To my mind, urban geography is best approached by a consideration of man's dynamic pattern of urban occupance in its total setting. A course in urban geography on the college level usually examines the origin and development of urbanism, analyzes the world-wide distribution of cities, investigates and compares urban patterns, forms and functions, studies the forces affecting urban land use, and touches on the geographical aspects of city planning. The regional geography of individual cities is generally included, as well as the differential character of the cities of the world, considered in relation to other geographic differences.

The content of the three books under discussion fits fairly well into the above concept of urban geography. In the Atlanta and Los Angeles studies the regional geography of the individual city is stressed, with location, pattern, form, function, and city planning receiving emphasis. In the first half of *Surging Cities* a number of cities throughout the world are analyzed, while in the final section, the city of Boston is the focus of attention.

On the other hand, from the viewpoint of geographers, certain fairly obvious weaknesses are apparent in all of these texts.

Surging Cities, for example, is oriented around existing city plans. The authors tend to come forward with *the* planned solution to a problem rather rapidly. In general, the need for understanding the complex interrelations of the elements for which plans are being made is not stressed. No possible alternative solutions are offered—implementation, apparently, is all that is needed.

A geographer writing a textbook on Los Angeles would probably put considerable emphasis on the major land use areas within the metropolis. A general land use map would be included. The extent to which the livelihood of Los Angeles is dependent on the surrounding area might also be given more attention.

Perhaps a geographer would not produce books exactly like these. Differences in emphasis and organization would be expected. But possibly the differences would be but little greater than those occurring among the works of individual geographers.

Thus, in spite of varying emphasis, and tho these courses are not called geography or taught by geographers, I think we can say that in effect urban geography *is* now being taught in a number of our high schools.

But, we might ask, is urban geography the proper contribution of our discipline to the secondary school? Surveys indicate that where geography has had a place in high school at all, world geography or economic geography is the usual offering. Recent writings by eminent geographers suggest global geography or a similar course as appropriate for the secondary student.[2] Apparently urban geography has not heretofore been considered, much less offered, at this level.

[2] See Lathrop, H. O., "A Suggested Course in the Geography of Nations," and Warmen, Henry B., "A Suggested Course in World (Or Global) Geography" in *Geographic Approaches to Social Education,* Nineteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, The National Council for the Social Studies, 1948, pp. 239-272.

Perhaps in the light of new opportunities a reconsideration of earlier decisions is in order. What is the case for urban geography in the high school?

1. In the first place, in 1950, we are living in an urban age. In the United States, ten years ago, almost six persons out of every ten lived in areas considered urban. Nearly half of our population resided in 140 large metropolitan districts. Signs point to an increase in these proportions when the current census is reported. In California, it is estimated that nearly three-fourths of our citizens live in seven metropolitan districts. Los Angeles and San Francisco together, account for nearly two-thirds of the state's population. Urban areas are, and apparently will be for the immediate future, the home of an increasingly large majority of our citizens.

2. The concentration of a large number of people in a comparatively small area, gives rise to unique problems of a complexity worthy of separate and specialized study. The intimate and necessary daily contact of masses of people in compact residential areas, on constricted transportation arteries, and within piled up business and manufacturing districts, magnifies error in layout and disharmony in form. The specialization of areas and individuals adds to the problem.

3. In large measure, urban problems are susceptible to local solution. It is true that the destiny of a city is inexorably tied up with the fate of the region, nation and world order of which it is a part. None-the-less, the extent to which a city is a pleasant or an irritating place in which to live, and the extent to which a city prospers or declines, is not predestined or inevitable. Much can be done by citizens to shape the future of their own city. For in final analyses, it is the relative success of individual cities within a similar framework of national and international influences that make a city a desirable or undesirable place in which to live and work. Specialized knowledge, of the sort urban geography can provide, in the hands of the large mass of citizenry, seems essential for this purpose.

4. Then, too, is not the building of local understandings equally as worth while as striving for world understanding? There is no question as to the value of a course in world geography in the high school. Survival in the modern world requires effective citizens, possessed with understandings of homelands other than their own. But the solution of local problems is fully as important. To a large

degree our nation's strength: its industrial plant, economic organization and cultural institutions, exist in an urban setting. Their preservation and efficient functioning is a prime necessity. It would seem doubtful, therefore, if success is possible on the world scene if we fail on the local stage. Further, knowledge and confidence gained by experience in solving problems on the local level will prove invaluable in the world arena.

5. There is a recognition of a need for the sort of knowledge urban geography can contribute to the solution of urban problems. The modification of existing courses and the organization of new ones including the materials and techniques of urban geography indicate a felt need for the geographic contribution. City planners, business groups and other citizens' organizations are insisting that a place be made in the high school curriculum for urban analysis.

6. One of the most valuable contributions of our discipline to the common task of understanding human life on earth is its special line of approach. Surely training in the chorographic approach, and practice in dealing with "unassorted localized phenomena," can be obtained as well in one field of geography as in another. In fact, the urban branch would seem a particularly happy choice for training in our viewpoint. A wide variety of landscapes are available within a relatively small area. First hand observation and extensive field work is possible. Then, too, local urban problems are of concrete importance to the student and excite immediate interest.

Not only is the case for urban geography strong, but, as we have seen, the subject is actually being taught in the high schools of at least three large cities, tho under some other name. How should geographers react to this challenging development? Should we be piqued because success comes from an unrequested quarter and fails to recognize our discipline by name? Should we remain passively neutral and uninterested? Or should we be enthusiastically happy, claim direct relationship to this unexpected offspring, and encourage the extension of similar courses to other schools?

The latter alternative seems to me to be the most appropriate. Geographers might well be gratified by the appearance of these new books and new secondary school courses. In a real sense the publication of the texts and their adoption by high schools is a belated recognition of a need for the sort of understandings geographers are trained to promote. Members of our profession should be alert to encourage proposals by other schools to introduce geographic studies of urban areas into the secondary curriculum. We

should encourage and assist the teachers of these courses to obtain training in geographic methods. Most important of all, geographers should seize every opportunity to demonstrate our ability to provide textual and cartographic materials, as well as trained instruction, for any general courses dealing with man's most complex structure—the Twentieth Century City.

PROGRESS IN WEST GREENLAND

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Accurate information on the modern development of Greenland is not easy to secure from reference books. This is particularly strange, because among Arctic areas it is the one where most scientific research has been carried on, and where the best and most continuous records have been maintained for over a century and a half. Students of geography, limited to the English language, cannot readily obtain a clear and simple picture of the physical environment of the island; of its resources and their development; of the native peoples, their modern culture; and the plans which are now being carried out for their advancement.

One of the best geographical studies of northern peoples is that published by the late Dr. Elmer W. Ekblaw concerning the Polar Eskimo.* It was based on four years of residence among them, about thirty-five years ago, and has stood the passage of time well. Unfortunately, it was representative of an isolated group who were not typical of the great majority of Greenlanders. It tended to strengthen the impressions gathered from the works of Peary and other American explorers who had used north-west Greenland as a base for reaching the North Pole.

Both thirty-five years ago and today, most of the permanent residents of Greenland follow a life radically different from that of the Polar Eskimos. It is, in fact, a misapprehension to think of them as Eskimos, since they have been in direct contact with Europeans since shortly after 1720, and both in their culture and in their physique have become modified as a consequence. This paper summarizes the physical and human geography of the south-

* Ekblaw, W. Elmer, "The Material Response of the Polar Eskimo to their Far Arctic Environment," *Annals of the Association of American Geographers* 17, 1927, pp. 148-197.

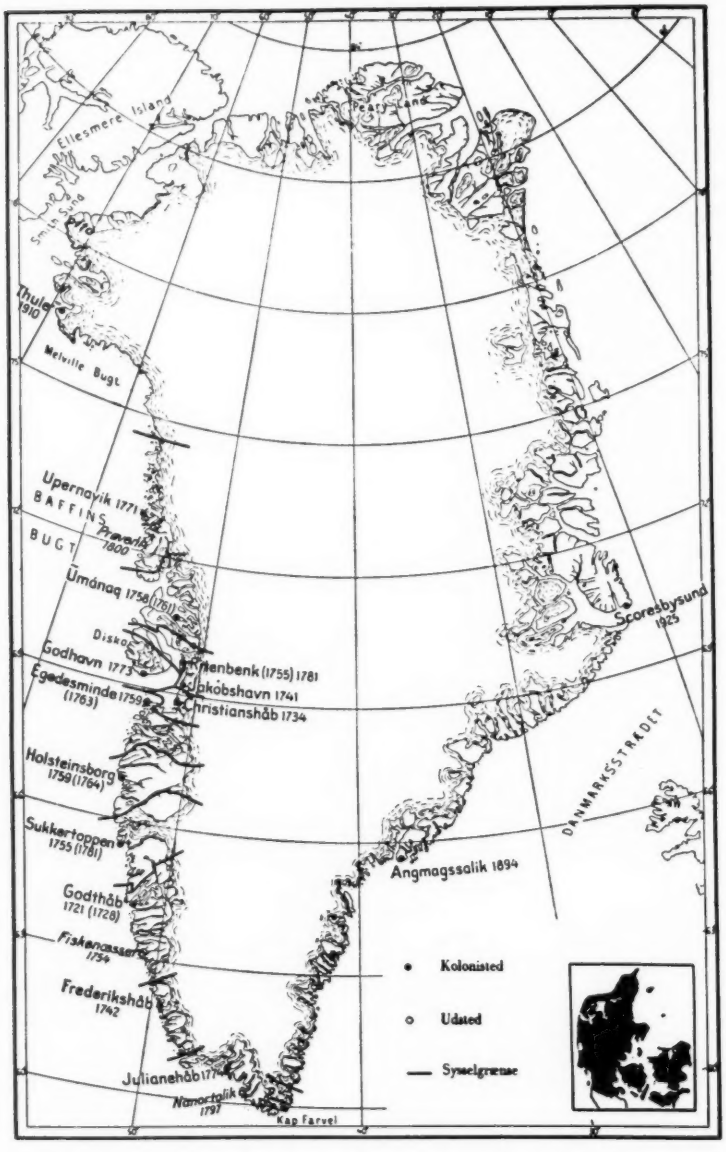

FIG. 1. This map shows the location and date of founding of the larger settlements in Greenland. The legend may be translated as follows:

Kolonisted is the administrative center of a county.

Udsted is a large village. There are in addition many smaller villages not shown on this map.

Sysselgraense is a county boundary, which in each case extends from the sea to the ice cap.

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western part of Greenland, reaching from Upernavik at the southern end of Melville Bay in approximately 73° N. latitude, southward to Cape Farewell in approximately 60° N. latitude. It is along this coast that the modernization of Greenland has taken place, and it is here that plans for speeding up this development are being concentrated.

Surface and Minerals

About six-sevenths of Greenland is buried under ice, leaving at best a narrow strip of land exposed along the coastline. On the west coast, this never exceeds one hundred miles, and in places is reduced to practically nothing. Residents of Greenland, therefore, cling precariously to a small area of land between an ice cap up to 10,000 feet above sea level, and perhaps 7,000 feet thick, and the waters of Davis Strait. This strip of land is not continuous, since it is intersected by numerous fjords, and offshore is broken up into a very large number of islands, which in some places provide a "skerry guard" between the mainland and Davis Strait. Much of the west coast is of ancient rock, largely granite and gneiss, eroded into alpine-like features. There are, in the Disko area, more recent rocks including sandstone and limestone, with some coal measures included. The whole has been modified by glacial action, by subsidence, and later by emergence from the sea. Within the rocks which are readily exposed thru a thin covering of vegetation, some minerals of importance have been found, and the presence of others is suspected. Economically, the outstanding mineral is cryolite, found near Ivigtut, on the southern part of the coast. Coal of low quality is mined on and near Disko Island in about latitude 70°. So far, no other minerals, with the possible exception of marble at one time quarried north of Disko, are of economic significance.

Climate

The climate of West Greenland is generally supposed to be Arctic, if one accepts the July isotherm of 10°C. (50°F.) as being the criterion. There is, however, reason to believe that certain of the fjords in the southern part of the area have sufficiently warm summers to remove them from this classification. At Ivigtut the annual mean temperature is +5°C., but the temperature falls gradually until it is —9°C. at Upernavik (and continues to fall to —13°C. at Thule) in the north-west. Winter temperatures on the

west coast are not severe, with Ivigtut having a mean for the coldest month, February, of —7°C., and Upernavik —23°. Winter temperatures may change frequently, due to the passage of air masses traveling from the west, or because fohn winds descend from the ice cap. The sea is generally unfrozen in winter as far north as Sukkertoppen, altho thin ice always forms at the heads of fjords and in small bays along much of the coast. Winter ice conditions vary considerably. In mild seasons coasting ships are able to reach as far north as Egedesminde in December. In only rare years is there continuous ice between Disko Island and the mainland at Egedesminde. The seaport, Godthaab, can be reached by ocean-going vessels thruout the year. Curiously enough, the worst ice trouble on the south-west coast is due to the heavy Arctic icepack swept northward around Cape Farewell. It originates in the Arctic Basin and along the East Greenland coast. This ice sometimes closes ports as far north as Godthaab in summer, and must always be taken into consideration at Julianehaab and near the southern fjords.

Transportation—Old and New

Transportation within Greenland is necessarily influenced by these vagaries of the sea. There is practically no land transportation, except in winter time. Roads only exist close to the larger settlements, and they are very short. All communication, whether between the larger administrative areas or within them, is by small boat, schooner or steamship. North of Holsteinsborg, sledge travelling is possible in winter, but no sledge dogs are used or kept south of this town.

Aircraft have provided an important supplementary means of travel, especially during the war years, but there is at present no regular internal system of civil air transport. A large military airfield, B.W.1, operated by the United States Air Force is available for occasional use by Danish government planes. Another, B.W.8, was recently taken over by Denmark from the United States Air Force, while a third and smaller field at Marrak, near Godthaab also used by the United States during the war has been operated by Denmark for some years. Amphibious aircraft have been used in connection with several important expeditions. The two-year Pearyland Expedition which recently completed its work in the north-eastern corner of the country was originally put in the field

by Catalina aircraft, and was resupplied in the same way in 1949. The present writer, along with his family, reached Greenland late in October 1944 in an amphibious Canso airplane of the Royal Canadian Air Force. It landed on the sea at Godthaab, and also made use of wheel landings at air fields. The French scientific expedition at present wintering on the Greenland ice cap in 75° N. latitude used aircraft for parachuting additional supplies during the 1949 summer.

The Native People

There are about 22,000 permanent residents in Greenland, of

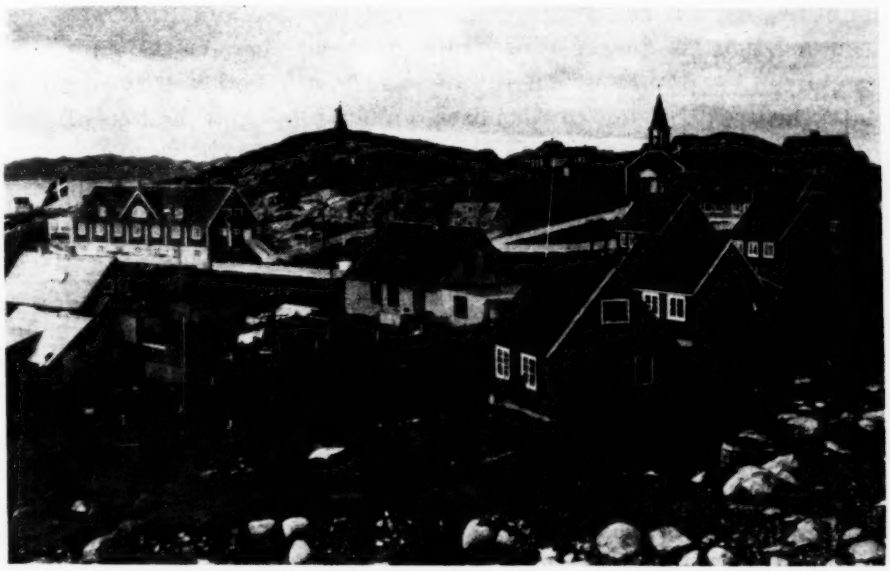

Fig. 2. Center of Godthaab, capital of Greenland.

whom about 1,500 live in two areas on the east coast and 400 in the far north-west. The remainder live on the west coast south of 75° N. latitude. The population has increased very rapidly in the past half-century, rising from a total of about 11,500 in 1900. The excess of births over deaths and the steadily increasing standard of health suggests that the total will continue to rise rapidly, thus placing an added strain on the already inadequate natural resources. These people are referred to as "Greenlanders," and are partially of Eskimo origin and partly of European. They use the Greenland version of the Eskimo language, but an increasingly large proportion of them are also able to use Danish.

Traditionally, the Greenlanders were hunters depending very largely upon the seal and other mammals, and to a smaller extent on fish, caribou and sea birds. The distribution of settlements, the equipment, clothing and housing of the people and their traditional skills, were all well-adapted to such an economy. The past thirty years have, however, seen an important change. A fall in the number of seals available, and a slight increase in the temperature of the sea water, which has brought the Atlantic cod and halibut into the coastal areas of West Greenland, has resulted in a change, so that today the Greenlander is essentially a fisherman preparing codfish, and its products, for the world market. He is no longer a hunter with a self-contained subsistence economy. It must be assumed that the increase in temperature of the coastal waters is temporary, and that, when it falls again, the cod will once more leave the area. In view of the change in customs and the loss of traditional skills due to the reduction in seal hunting, it is very doubtful if the economy can again revert to that formerly followed.

Farming on a small scale is becoming increasingly important in the southern part of West Greenland. Some natives have given up the sea and regard themselves as full-time farmers. Sheep rearing is of prime importance only in the fjords in the Julianehaab area, where there are about 20,000 sheep. During the 1948-49 winter, which was especially severe, there were for the first time heavy losses because of the weather. Wool is used locally and is also exported to Denmark. Much of the meat is consumed in Greenland but some canned products, as well as the sheep skins, are shipped abroad. It is interesting to observe how this development of farming has taken the Greenlanders from their villages along the outer coast into the inner reaches of the fjords to use once more the land colonized by Norse settlers a thousand years ago. Today, modern Greenlandic shepherds watch their flocks among the ruins of Norse churches.

Two long-term attempts have been made to breed foxes, but one has been given up. The official view appears to be that more is to be gained by guaranteeing a food supply to the wild foxes. Fish offal is used for this. The very high proportion of blue fox pelts found in Greenland increases the value of the catch.

Canning was first begun in Greenland on a commercial scale more than twenty years ago, when it was limited to Holsteinsborg, where halibut and shrimps were processed with Greenland labor.

This industry is now being expanded, and a very large cannery has just been completed in one of the southern fjords not far from Julianehaab. Other similar developments are probable in the next few years.

Trade and Administration

For nearly two hundred years the Danish economic and social policy in Greenland has been to maintain a complete government

Fig. 3. Children outside a village school.

monopoly of trade and employment, so that there has been no appreciable private importing or exporting of goods, and all prices have been fixed by government order. Thus Greenland has been, for a very long time, an example of a closely planned economy. This policy was followed and has been maintained in order to protect the native peoples from the damaging effects of intimate contact with predatory outsiders. It has undoubtedly enabled the Greenlanders to achieve their present stage of social well-being, health and cultural advancement without going thru many of the tragedies which have struck other primitive peoples. One reason why Green-

land is of especial interest today is that this traditional policy is being reviewed and radical modifications are likely to take place.

The Danish government, thru the Greenland Administration, has in the past purchased all the products of the country and shipped them to Copenhagen for sale. Conversely, the only stores in Greenland have been those operated by the government, which has deliberately restricted the variety of goods available so as to keep the demands of the residents near the bounds set by the meager resources of the country. The Danish government has at no time profited from its dealings with the Greenlanders and in many years a large deficit has had to be made up, either from a surplus on the mining of cryolite, or from the Danish national exchequer.

Greenland has been governed as a Danish colony. Administration has been thru an office of the Prime Minister's Department, and practically all of the administrative officials have been Danes. West Greenland has been divided into a dozen administrative Districts, each with a main administrative center. Each District has smaller settlements scattered thru it, and outlying hamlets. These Districts have been grouped into two main Provinces, one North Greenland with its capital at Godhavn on Disko Island, and the other South Greenland with its capital at Godthaab. The senior official in each of these has been a magistrate or governor reporting directly to Copenhagen. During the war years there was a single capital at Godthaab, since all contact with Copenhagen was impossible. Greenland was, in effect, administered by a small group of Danish officials, and administered exceptionally capably.

Cultural Affairs

Education has been compulsory thru the elementary schools since the beginning of the present century, but this has only been really effective in the last thirty years. There is no illiteracy, since everyone is educated in his own language, Greenlandic. Beyond the elementary stage, Greenlanders may proceed thru a variety of schools, eventually reaching a seminary for the training of teachers, or a technical school, both of which lead, in special cases, to advanced education in Denmark. While the elementary education has always been in Greenlandic, high school education is increasingly being carried on in Danish. This change is in response to the pressing demands of the Greenlanders themselves. There are at present many Greenlanders in Denmark receiving academic, professional or vocational education, and every effort is being made

to fill administrative posts at the lower level with native-born candidates.

Since many Greenlanders are by tradition skilled craftsmen, it is natural that they should quickly adapt themselves to new local industries. A small shipbuilding yard has been operated at Holsteinsborg for twenty years, and there is now also a junior technical school there. The equipment is good, the training offered the boys is of high standard, and a proportion of them eventually proceed to Denmark for advanced instruction.

Greenland had its first printing press in 1860, when a native,

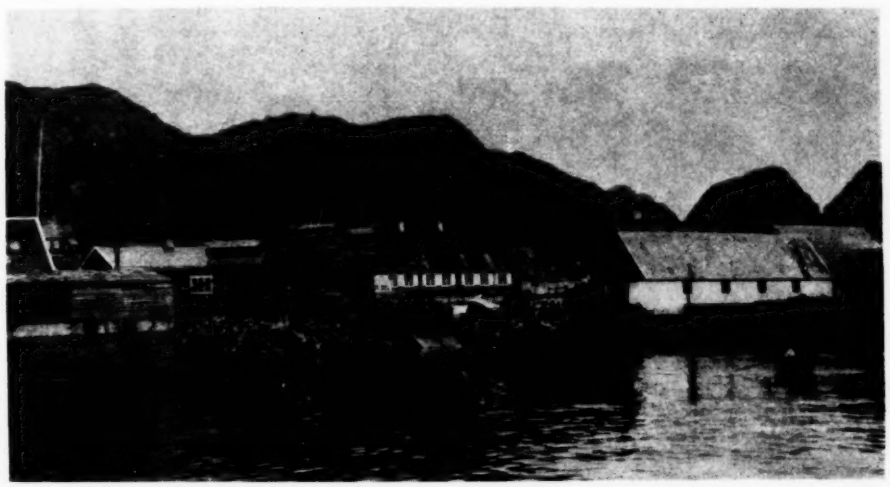

FIG. 4. A typically unsuitable town site, Sukkertoppen.

trained in Denmark, returned to Godthaab to edit and publish a small newspaper with a lithographic press. Modern equipment now produces, in addition to local newspapers, much of the printed material in the country, including school textbooks.

Radio has long been used for commercial communication. It is now also a cultural medium. Almost all the operators are native Greenlanders, and during the war years when traffic was very heavy, there was only one Danish operator in the country. It is hoped that radio and weather stations and similar technical operations will before very long be manned exclusively by Greenlanders.

RECENT CHANGES

The Nazi invasion of Denmark in April 1940, cut the Greenland Administration in Copenhagen off from the colony. The Danish administrators in Greenland had no alternative but to turn to

North America for supplies and for markets in which to sell the country's products. Trading contacts were maintained thru United States and Canadian Consulates opened at Godthaab and thru a selling agency in New York. There were very tenuous contacts with United States air bases and weather stations in Greenland itself, but otherwise the country was not directly influenced from North America. The temporary break with Denmark enabled the Administrators on the spot to develop techniques of local self-govern-

Fig. 5. High school class at Godthaab, Greenland. The native tongue is Greenlandic Eskimo, altho they also speak Danish.

ment much more rapidly than would have been possible otherwise. Consequently, after the war there came a demand, both in Greenland and Denmark, for reform in the Greenland administration. One result has been the appointment of a Parliamentary Commission to draft reforms for the country. With the close collaboration of leading Greenlanders, it is now evolving a new administrative, economic and social pattern for the country. The development of natural resources is certain to be speeded up, the education of Greenlanders, both culturally and technically, is being increased, and the government monopoly of trading is likely to be modified, possibly thru the establishment of cooperatives, for which Denmark has long been famous. Large sums of public money are being

spent on the scientific surveys necessary to make these changes possible; on the establishment of weather stations to aid aviation, the building of new harbors, erection of power stations, the modernization of fish processing plants, and on improvements in the educational system. In such ways it is hoped that the Greenland economy may be so strengthened that it can withstand any shocks due to changes in climatic conditions (leading to the retreat of the Atlantic cod) or to serious variations in the demand for Greenland products on the world market.

While sheep raising has become an important secondary occupation in some districts, and small-scale agriculture will probably spread, it is not believed that there can be any radical departures in the country's economy. Modern Greenland is as dependent upon the sea for its livelihood as was Greenland of fifty years ago. However, it is now able to use the sea's resources more efficiently, and with better equipment to tap sources farther from the coast, in this way raising the standard of living of the whole population.

The Danish government of Greenland has long been a model of disinterested colonial administration. The welfare of the native people has been the sole criterion of success. The country has been closed to non-residents (and is still closed) merely to protect its own people. As they have advanced in education, health and economic awareness, the time has approached when the barriers could be let down gradually. The next few years will undoubtedly see this change of policy being brought into effect by the Danish Administration.

BRINGING GRADE SCHOOL PROJECTS INTO THE COLLEGE CLASSROOM

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Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon those college geography courses required or recommended for future elementary teachers. It is she, the coed in skirt, sweater, and saddle shoes, who will shortly be teaching Jack and Johnnie their geography ABC's. It is she, the future elementary teacher, who will set the general level of geographic understanding for millions of future Americans. In a few brief college courses how can geography be made so interesting and meaningful that our children will be insured, thru her, a

solid foundation in geography? These courses should be a challenge, not burdensome introductory classes to be presented by the least qualified member of the staff.

A device that can prove valuable in helping prepare the future elementary teacher for her work, is that of planning and constructing simple projects that she in turn may use in grade school situations. These projects take the form of displays and models designed to illustrate some phase of geography. Properly handled such projects win the interest of almost any grade school youngster. It is common knowledge that the amount of information a child assimilates is directly related to his interest in the subject. Creating with one's hands, especially creating things from an idea partly or wholly conceived by one's self may be just what is needed to stimulate the interest of grade children in any field of knowledge. Geography readily lends itself to such experiences. Geography reaches from the field and factory to the classroom door. There is geography in the meanest coal town, in the tiniest village in the wheat belts, as well as in the largest metropolis. Projects can help bring geography from the field and factory right into the classroom.

The elementary teacher however will be in a better position to supervise such projects if her training has offered the opportunity for planning and constructing one or more of them. Two weeks can well be spent away from formal textbook material in such practical application as projects afford. Several things must be constantly kept in mind when planning projects to be done in college courses.

1. Projects, altho done by college students, should be simple enough that grade school children could largely plan and construct projects by themselves. Overly complicated problems bring much delay, discouragement, and often end with the teacher doing most of the work. Construction of a mercurial barometer is fine for a high school science class, but is probably too difficult for the elementary school. A crude wind vane or rain gauge might be within the grasp of grade school children. In the college class, students are constructing elementary level projects; therefore, they should present a refined and finished product, much superior in quality to that expected of grade school children.
2. Projects should be inexpensive with most of the materials easily obtainable. Almost every home has old magazines and newspapers that can afford a fine selection of pictures and

clippings. Most farmers, merchants, company executives, etc., are happy to provide samples of products and frequently much additional material. Pasteboard, glue, crayons are cheap and are part of general school supplies. A model of the locks at Sault Ste. Marie with motors to open and close the locks as well as pumps to raise and lower the water level, might be fascinating but scarcely a project for which the materials would be either inexpensive or easily available.

3. Projects are designed for the study of geography. However, it is difficult for professional geographers to define the outer limits of their discipline, and in grade school certainly no time should be wasted in such an endeavor. If some history, government, or related subjects infiltrate the project, so much the better. It may thus serve to illustrate the interrelationship of various school courses and help to show teachers of other subjects the value of geography. A project on the importance of canals in the growth of your community may be as much history as geography—so be it.
4. Projects in the college classroom are used as demonstration units. It is desirable to have as many types of projects as possible. In this way, not one or two but many ideas for future use can be presented. In grade school, however, probably each child or group of children would work on similar projects.
5. Projects should be the student's, not the instructor's. In the college situation it is best to merely outline a variety of projects, but to add little specific instruction on how to proceed or what material to include or exclude. College students should be obliged to work out the projects for themselves, as they shortly will in actual teaching situations. Encourage original ideas; they may prove superior to many old and tried suggestions. In a recent class under my supervision, a completely original project was voted best, by the class. The more the work can be completely the student's, grade school or college, from the idea up, the greater will be the benefit derived.

A recent college class for future elementary teachers constructed projects using some of the suggestions embodied in this paper. At the outset the instructor presented a few possible project themes. Reference was made to the McKnight and McKnight publication, *Activities in Geography,* compiled by George J. Miller. The class was divided into teams of two, except in the cases of a few

individuals who preferred to work alone. A few tips on how to proceed were given, but for the most part the instructor had no idea of the project, other than its theme, until it was completed. At the final class period all the projects were assembled in one large classroom, some attached to the wall, others displayed on classroom tables, and others on bridge tables borrowed for the event.

To make the projects more valuable, each student or team of students had typed a description sheet which was placed near the project. These description sheets gave concise information about the project so that other students or the general public could quickly grasp what the project was depicting, and how it had been constructed. The description sheets followed this form:

DESCRIPTION SHEET

NAME OF PROJECT .....

NAME OF STUDENTS .....

.....

GRADE LEVEL FOR WHICH PROJECT IS INTENDED .....

AIM OF PROJECT

(What the teacher hopes the children will gain from the project.)

.....

.....

.....

METHOD OF CONSTRUCTION

(Detailed instructions for each step in construction.)

.....

.....

.....

SOURCE AND COST OF ALL MATERIALS .....

.....

.....

.....

With such detailed information other students would not find it difficult to reproduce any of the projects in the display. Such description sheets can be doubly effective if mimeographed and distributed to all members of the class so that each member may

have many specific project ideas to take into actual teaching assignments.

The exhibit included a wide range of projects. A partial list follows to illustrate the types of things the prospective teachers believed would lend themselves to use in grade school teaching:

1. *A Trip to Yellowstone.* This project included maps showing location of Yellowstone National Park, the roads thru the park, important scenic features in the park. It included actual photographs taken at Yellowstone by a member of the student's family and a small model of a scene in Yellowstone. This idea could be varied to illustrate any scenic area that pupils had recently visited. Estimated cost of project, $.30.
2. *Jigsaw Puzzle of the United States.* Three jigsaw puzzle maps were made, one using plyboard, the others less solid materials more easily manipulated. One cost nothing, the second $.75, and the third showed no estimate of cost. One student mentioned the fun fellow college students had with the puzzle. They found much to their chagrin that they didn't know as much about the United States as they supposed.
3. *Corn Belt Farm.* Another type of model, and one showing a much smaller area, was that of a corn belt farm. The college students, one of whom lived on the farm depicted, secured an aerial photograph of the farm and from it laid out on a large sheet of poster paper the outline of fields, woods, roads, and streams. They then painted these features so the model would appear like the aerial photo. A few buildings, fences, and trees were constructed from paper, matchsticks, and confetti, and properly located on the poster board farm. Samples of the crops grown in each field were placed in small paper dishes and put on the fields in which they were grown. Estimated cost of project, $.35.
4. *Middletown.* While the Corn Belt Farm would be very useful in a rural community, a project more suitable for urban situations was done by a Middletown student. A map of the city was secured from the city engineer and reproduced on poster board. (For grade school children the map could be used directly.) Then the student studied leading industries and points of interest in the city, and with a camera made a tour of the city, taking representative photographs. The photographs were glued to the poster board and numbers were

entered on the city map to show the location of each picture. While only a limited number of grade children might have access to camera and film, pictures of most significant spots in a city could be found in old publications. Estimated cost of project, $4.62 (Mostly for film and developing.)

5. *The Shenandoah Valley.* In this project the students simulated a television set by cutting an opening in a large pasteboard box. On a long strip of brown wrapping paper they pasted and drew pictures typical of the Shenandoah Valley. This strip was mounted on rollers so it could roll past the "television screen." Estimated cost of project. $.35.
6. *The Solar System.* This small model, not done to scale, showed the planets and their satellites in relationship to the sun. The planets were of molded clay, their moons also of clay mounted on cardboard disks attached to the planets. Wires stretched into the distance to represent the orbits of the planets. Estimated cost of project, $.40.
7. *Information and Products Map of Ohio.* A large map of Ohio (about 6 ft. x 6 ft.), showing the main highways, was equipped with models and pictures of factories, ships, scenic attractions, etc. In the words of the student who developed the project this is "How to Make It":

   1. "Secure an old cardboard crate or box; slit the glued corner and open it up. As large a box as possible should be used. This will make suitable and inexpensive material.
   2. Secure a road map of Ohio from a reputable gas station. Mark three inch squares on the map and nine inch squares on the cardboard. Draw an outline of Ohio on the cardboard by using the squares as a guide. Add the location of streams, lakes, principle cities, highways, and any other information you may desire.
   3. Carve from soft wood, buildings, boats etc. Paint these and glue them to the large map in proper places.
   4. Cut from magazines or any other source pictures of products you may wish to show and glue them to the areas to which they pertain on the map."

   The student included these instructions for using the map:

   1. "This map would be used in connection with the study of Ohio in the fifth grade.
   2. The children can use it to help fix in mind the location of principle cities and what they are famous for by making 'motor trips' with the miniature autos, and then filling out the prepared 'tripsheets.'
   3. Since all the work involved can be done by the children, the project can be correlated with mathematics and art. It may serve as an incentive for children to learn geography by having to make the map and build the cities.
   4. Any child who knows of a town where he formerly lived, or where he has relatives can put this town on the map.

5. This map can be used to introduce a little fundamental road map reading, an art in which we need much practice.
6. The mileage chart at the bottom of the map may serve as a lesson in itself in reading graphs and charts.
7. The surrounding states are clearly marked. This will help fix in the child's mind Ohio's location in the country."

In addition to the map itself the student prepared "trip sheets" for use with the map. These mimeographed forms contained such questions as:

What highways did you travel on?
How far did you go?
In what direction did you travel?
What rivers did you cross?
What cities did you see?
What are the cities famous for?

Children could be assigned a trip between two cities or locations on the map. They would take a toy auto and proceed to travel over the roads on the map to their destination, watching for rivers, towns, scenic features as they went. Estimated cost of project, $.45.

8. *Salt, Flour, and Water Relief Models.* Several models were constructed using a combination of salt, flour, and water plus some form of coloring. One represented the Great Lakes area, another Italy, and another depicted a spit, hook, baymouth bar, and an offshore bar. The Art Department might cooperate in such undertakings. Estimated cost of these projects, $.35, $.64, and $.88.
9. *Miami Conservancy District.* The students made a large map of the area covered by this Ohio conservation district locating on it the rivers, the five dams with their retarding basins, and the main cities protected by the district. In addition several pages of explanatory material told why the district was established and how it is carrying out its program of flood control. Estimated cost of project, nothing.
10. *Ohio's Ten Largest Cities.* A large sheet of poster paper was cut in the shape of Ohio, and upon this map the ten largest cities of Ohio were located. An article characteristic of each city was placed on the table below the map with a string connecting each city with its product. Thus a cake of Ivory soap represented Cincinnati; a toy cash register, Dayton; etc. Estimated cost of project, $1.25. (This included several items that ordinarily could be borrowed from the children's homes.)
11. *Buzzer Map of the United States.* A map of the United States

was traced, then painted, on a large piece of plyboard. An assortment of 24 significant rivers, cities, lakes, etc., were selected and electrical connections were made from the back of the board to a bolt extending thru the map to the proper location. The buzzer sounded when the correct location on the map was touched with a pointer at the same time that the name from the list at the sides of the map was touched with another pointer. This project was much more involved than most, and would have to be worked out by the teacher. There is no doubt however that it would be extremely popular with grade school children.

Estimated cost of project, $6.72. (Cost included transformer so it might be used with ordinary 120 volt AC current.)

* * *

In the college class, projects may be spaced thruout the semester or they may be assigned for completion upon a single date. If spaced thruout the semester, each team of students can present its project individually to the class. This will provide opportunity for class discussion and criticism that will aid in improving the project before the student tries it as a teacher for the first time. However, the projects may be completed on a single date. Then if desired the projects may be exhibited for the general public. In this way other students and faculty as well as interested townspeople, can see concrete evidence of the value of geography. In the grade school, rather than spacing the projects, it would be advisable to have all projects completed at the same time. Here, too, a public exhibition or display to which parents are invited would be valuable.

Is it worthwhile to bring grade school projects into the college classroom? This question was put before two classes who had recently completed such projects. They were almost unanimous in answering in the affirmative. Here are several of the reactions: "I know I personally gained a wealth of practical knowledge which isn't in texts." "... most worthwhile part of this semester's work." "It is something that I feel I can actually use in my teaching." "I began to see how a map of the type which I made could be integrated into other courses such as history." "It makes a prospective teacher aware of her resources (ability, money, etc.). It made me aware of what I can do if I will just try."

THE REGIONAL STATUS OF LITTLE DIXIE IN MISSOURI AND LITTLE EGYPT IN ILLINOIS

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Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri

This paper is concerned with two controversial areas bordering the southern margin of the Corn Belt. Little Dixie is a twelve county area of 7,321 square miles, located between the Mississippi and Missouri rivers, in central and northeastern Missouri. Little Egypt is a sixteen county area of 6,160 square miles, between the Mississippi, Ohio, and Wabash rivers in southernmost Illinois (see map).

Both Little Dixie and Little Egypt are relatively unknown outside the areas themselves. They are almost completely overlooked in geographic literature. However, the contention is made here that they are not merely untypical parts of the Corn Belt which can continue to be ignored for the reason that they aren't typical of this recognized geographic region—the Corn Belt—in which they are usually included.

Both these regions are recognized locally and in some literature as possessing unity. Local recognition of the fact that one lives in an area different from surrounding areas may be a primary clue in establishing geographic regions particularly since cultural features as well as physical features are now recognized as geographically significant. In other words, it is suggested here that these two areas each may possess a significant degree of homogeneity warranting their recognition as geographic regions.

Origin of the Names

The people of these two regions do not consider themselves as natives of the Corn Belt. Use of the term Corn Belt is almost completely absent—totally unlike Iowa and Central Illinois where the Corn Belt Motor Company, Corn Belt this, and Corn Belt that are characteristic names for businesses. On the other hand, local names for the regions, namely Little Dixie and Little Egypt have arisen. In both cases the origin of the respective term is debatable. The term Little Dixie apparently was used for years among Missouri politicians because of the political unity of the region similar to that of the "solid South." Wide usage of the term developed just

before World War II. One daily newspaper in the area currently proclaims that it is published in Mexico, Missouri, the capitol of Little Dixie, while a banner over its want-ad section claims that its want-ads cover the field like the dew does Little Dixie. In 1948 an editorial quarrel involving four newspapers in four Little Dixie cities broke out over which Little Dixie city was entitled to recognition as the "Capital of Little Dixie." Mexico apparently retains the title despite the skirmish.

The term "Little Egypt" is undoubtedly older historically than the term "Little Dixie." The most commonly accepted explanation is that the term Little Egypt dates from a severe winter in 1830-31 followed by a late spring and short summer in Central Illinois. The resulting crop failures to the north caused frontiersmen to come south to Southern Illinois to buy grain. The name "Little Egypt" was applied because of the similarity of the famine in Canaan as related in the Bible when grain was obtained in Egypt. The other leading explanation for the term "Little Egypt" is simply that the area is somewhat delta-like in character and contains several Egyptian place-names such as Cairo, Thebes, Karnak, Dongola, and Delta. Today local pride encourages omission of the "Little" from "Little Egypt" thus referring to the region simply as "Egypt." At Murphysboro which calls itself the "Mecca City of Egypt" there are business firms such as the Egyptian Auto and Home Supply Company, the Egyptian Garden Roller Rink, the Egyptian Optical Company, and Egyptian Sales Agency. At nearby Carbondale, home of such enterprises as the Egypt Book House, Egyptian Venetian Blind Factory, and Egyptian Electric Co-op Warehouse, students of Southern Illinois University call their newspaper "The Egyptian," their yearbook "The Obelisk" and the school directory "The Sphinx."

Delimitation of the Regions

The problem of delimiting these two areas presents slightly different problems. Using local popular opinion as a primary clue there is some apparent difference in the desirability of being included in Little Dixie and Little Egypt. Congressman Clarence Cannon of Missouri in a letter to the author stated it this way: "Unlike the section known as 'Little Egypt' in Illinois which every local county insists is just over its border line, a large number of counties insist that they are within the 'Little Dixie' area." Others, however, might suggest the reverse to be true.

In the case of Little Dixie, there are fewer actual delimitations in print than in the case of Little Egypt. In fact, the author's delimitation of Little Dixie published in 1948 in the *Missouri Historical Review* is apparently the most widely accepted. Certain refinements based on detailed study appear in the author's dissertation (Northwestern University, 1949). This delimitation was based primarily on the fact that Little Dixie can be mapped as a political region—a stronghold of the Democratic party—and that this political unity closely coincides with local popular opinion as to the areal extent of Little Dixie.

Little Egypt on the other hand is probably better known but it has an extremely indefinite northern boundary. A regional magazine called the *Egyptian Key* defines Little Egypt as consisting of the twenty-eight southernmost counties of Illinois—those counties south of or crossed by the old Vincennes-St. Louis trace, the route now followed by U.S. Highway 50 and the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. The vast majority of advertisers in this magazine, however, are from eight counties. Other delimitations suggest six, eleven, or sixteen counties. The latter appears to be the most acceptable at present.

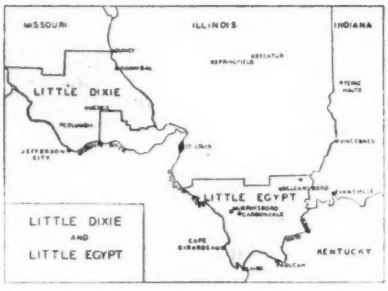
Settlement of the Regions

In general both these two regions were settled before most of the remainder of the states in which they are located. Little Dixie was thoroly settled between 1801 and 1835. Little Egypt was settled somewhat earlier between 1700 and 1825. Both were settled primarily by southerners altho there were a few French settlements in Little Egypt before the southerners began arriving in large numbers after 1800. There was one important difference in settlement which influences the present-day cultural geography of these areas and helps provide for their respective regional unity. This was the fact that slave-owning southerners or at least southerners accustomed to slavery settled Little Dixie. Non-slaveholding southerners settled Little Egypt.

The Civil War accentuated regional unity. In Little Dixie almost all the inhabitants followed the "lost cause" and the area was policed by Federal troops recruited chiefly from surrounding areas. Twenty-three per cent of the people of Little Dixie in 1860 were Negro. Even in Little Egypt there was much sympathy for the Confederacy. There was talk of setting up "Egypt" as a separate state aligned with the South.

GEOGRAPHIC REGIONALITY OF LITTLE DIXIE

Expressions of the present day unity of these two regions are somewhat different. In the case of Little Dixie, local inhabitants refer vaguely to such things as settlement by southerners, southern cooking, southern customs, southern architecture, manner of speech, blue grass and fine horses, and the number of educational institutions in the region. There are, incidentally, seven colleges and the State University located in Little Dixie. You will notice, of course, that most of these factors are not easily usable as definitive criteria for a region, hence perhaps too often overlooked. One cultural criterion, however, which is readily measurable and mappable, is political attitudes of the people as reflected by voting habits. Voting habits express a rather fixed political philosophy in Little Dixie and are not readily copied or assumed by "outsiders." Thus it is found that Little Rock consists of a group of counties with strong attachment to the Democratic party. Ten of the Little Dixie counties have been consistently Democratic in every presidential election since 1872, whereas the other two were Republican only once—in 1928. Counties on all sides of Little Dixie are Republican or have a pronounced tendency in that direction.



With respect to population, Little Dixie contained 235,083 people in 1940. The population has declined steadily since 1900. Between 1900 and 1940 the rural population decline in Little Dixie has been generally more than in adjacent counties to the south and less than in counties adjacent to the north.

Thirty-four per cent of Little Dixie's people live in urban centers. There are some interesting comparisons which can be made here but I will mention only one—in the thirteen southern states thirty-five per cent of the population is urban, almost exactly the same percentage as in Little Dixie. It may also be noted that more strategically located and larger cities than those within Little Dixie exist on all sides—St. Louis to the southeast, Kansas City to the west, and Quincy to the northeast.

Eight per cent of the present inhabitants are Negro—far fewer than in 1860 but far more than in surrounding areas, Another differentiating cultural factor is the partial encirclement of Little

Dixie by Germans who arrived in Missouri in large numbers in the 1830's and 1840's, settled St. Louis and spread westward and northward from there.

Agriculture is the dominant economic activity. In terms of amount of land in farms, size of farms, value of farms, percentage of farmland in crops, amount of farm tenancy, types of farms, livestock units, and crops, Little Dixie is transitional between the agriculture of the Ozarks and agriculture of the Corn Belt. For example, O. E. Baker suggested in 1927 that the borders of the Corn Belt surround areas which produce over 3,000 bushels of corn per square mile. Today, Little Dixie simply cannot qualify. Individually, three Little Dixie counties can barely qualify.

The transitional nature of agriculture in Little Dixie reflects the physical characteristics of the two adjoining areas. The Ozarks are characteristically hilly, unglaciated, forested, and relatively low in fertility. The Corn Belt is characteristically level, glaciated, prairie, and relatively high in fertility. In other words, with respect to physical environment, Little Dixie has some features like those of the Ozarks and some like those of the Corn Belt. But the physical features that Little Dixie shares with the other two regions are, in Little Dixie, in combinations that are distinct from the combinations of features that hold for these adjoining areas.

Geographic Regionality of Little Egypt

In the case of Little Egypt the regional unity is different from that of Little Dixie. There is little political unity here inasmuch as there are strongly Republican counties as well as strongly Democratic counties. Little Egypt is more of a transition zone between the Cotton Belt and Corn Belt with respect to such cultural features as political attitudes of the people. Instead of eight institutions of higher learning, Little Egypt has only one. Likewise, with respect to Negro population, whereas the average of six and one-half per cent is almost as great as in Little Dixie, there is little homogeneity since the majority are in the three southernmost counties which produce cotton. However, in contrast with most of the rest of Illinois, Negroes are confronted with the problem of segregation in schools and elsewhere thru most of Little Egypt.

With respect to population, Little Egypt contained 386,809 people in 1940 with a population density twice that of Little Dixie. Thirty-six per cent of the people live in cities, a figure almost identical with that of Little Dixie. There are larger, more strategically

located cities on all sides such as St. Louis, Cape Girardeau, Paducah, and Evansville, again a similar situation to that found in Little Dixie. This is a real clue to Little Egypt's regionality as distinct from the regionality of the Corn Belt because without large cities, the region nevertheless has continued to increase in population rather than decline.

Further research leads to the conclusion that the present day regionality of Little Egypt is best expressed in the term "economic distress area" meaning a region essentially overpopulated in relation to the current economic opportunities available. Economic distress was particularly pronounced during the depression years of the 1930's and is again evident in 1950. Unemployment and practically all forms of public aid are high and in direct contrast to the rest of Illinois. The contrast with the rest of Illinois, of course, emphasizes the regionality.

Agriculture and coal-mining are the dominant economic activities. There are local specialties such as peaches and apples in Union and Jackson counties, popcorn in Gallatin County, cotton in Alexander and Pulaski counties, and fluorspar in Hardin County. General farming and coal mining, tho, dominate the region. Just as in Little Dixie, the majority of the counties, eleven of the sixteen do not provide sufficient corn per square mile to qualify as true Corn Belt counties.

Various groups have given attention to the possibility of developing forest resources and recreational facilities in Little Egypt. The region is better suited for such development than the rest of Illinois but is less suited to it than areas surrounding Little Egypt outside Illinois. There are seven state parks in Little Egypt as compared with two in Little Dixie.

As in Little Dixie, the transitional nature of agriculture in Little Egypt reflects physical conditions of surrounding areas. In the case of Little Egypt, this involves not only the Corn Belt to the north, and the Ozarks to the west but the Cotton Belt to the south, the Pennyroyal (Highland Rim) to the southeast and southern Indiana to the east.

Mention should perhaps be made that each region has had a native son who became a famous humorist and author. The writings of Little Dixie's Mark Twain are undoubtedly known by every reader of this article. Little Egypt's H. Allen Smith published a book in 1947 titled *Lo, the Former Egyptian* concerned with a

return to his home-town of McLeansboro. However, he is better known nationally as the author of *Rhubarb, Low Man on a Totem Pole,* and *Life in a Putty Knife Factory.*

Conclusion

Thus, Little Dixie and Little Egypt are not typical of the Corn Belt. Both have characteristics common to the Corn Belt but also have characteristics common to other surrounding regions. Little Dixie has a pronounced political regionalism which is distinctive. Little Egypt is a distinct economic distress area. These regions are not large but not so insignificant that they can be ignored. There must be geographic unity here, otherwise the regional designations, Little Dixie and Little Egypt, would not find such widespread popular usage.

The immediate future of Little Egypt and Little Dixie apparently lies in the further emphasis of livestock farming and dairying instead of corn farming. Of the field crops, soybeans and hay crops may utilize a greater percentage of the crop land in the future. Certain specialized crops such as popcorn, peaches, and apples in Little Egypt may continue to do well and production may even be increased. Rice has been successfully introduced in the Mississippi River bottoms of eastern Little Dixie. Tobacco growing has almost completely disappeared from both areas.

Mining cannot be counted on to be of any greater importance in either region than it is at present, and while these areas have some favorable locational features attractive to certain types of manufacturing, locational factors in general provide little promise for any rapid development of these areas for industrial purposes.

The position of Little Egypt in the otherwise rich agricultural and industrial state of Illinois has caused the problem of Little Egypt's future to receive somewhat greater attention than the problem of Little Dixie's future. In Missouri, the problem of the future of the Ozarks overshadows the problem of the future of Little Dixie. However, in the case of both Little Egypt and Little Dixie, proposals for developing recreational facilities and forestry must take into consideration the fact that neither region can or should move as far in that direction as is possible in the Ozarks.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL AT WORK

The program for the thirty-sixth meeting of the National Council of Geography Teachers at the Edgewater Beach Hotel, Chicago, on November 24 and 25 follows. The Executive Board will meet at 2 p.m. Thursday afternoon, November 23.

Friday, November 24, 1950

9:00 A.M. First General Session **East Lounge**

Presiding, Loyal Durand, Jr., President, National Council of Geography Teachers; Department of Geology and Geography, University of Tennessee.

Greetings to the National Council, Mamie L. Anderzhon, William Beye School, Oak Park, Illinois.

Response, Villa B. Smith, Second Vice-President, National Council of Geography Teachers; John Jay High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

Alaskan Problems and Potentials, Kirk H. Stone, Department of Geography, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

Geography of Education, Edna E. Eisen, Department of Geography, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

Collecting and Visualizing Precipitation Data, Thomas F. Barton, Department of Geography, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

Potential Uses of Government Libraries, Arch C. Gerlach, Maps Division, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.

The UNESCO International Seminar on the Teaching of Geography as an Aid to International Understanding, Montreal, Canada, July 12-August 23, 1950.

Panel by the four official delegates of the United States Government: Zoe A. Thralls (Chairman), University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; Thomas F. Barton, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana; Marion H. Seibel, School 52, Buffalo, New York; Sister Mary Ursula Hauk, St. Columba's Convent, Johnstown, Pennsylvania.

State Coordinators Luncheon

12:15 P.M. (Open Meeting) **Marine Dining Room**

Friday Afternoon

Section 1. Panel by a Group in Geographic Education **East Lounge 2:00 P.M.**

Presiding, Villa B. Smith, John Jay High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

Proceedings and Findings of a Study Group in Geographic Education. Presented by some of the members of the Southwestern Pennsylvania Study Group in Geographic Education.

Panelists: Katherine Montgomery (Chairman), Geography, Grades 7 and 8, Greensburg, Pennsylvania; Corinne Cowan, Geography, Grade 4, Greensburg, Pennsylvania; Helen Sampson, Geography, Grade 5, Carroll Township, Washington County, Pennsylvania; Aldine Patterson, Geography, Grades 6, 7, and 8, Franklin Township District, Greene County, Pennsylvania; Eugenia Baxter, Geography, Grades 7 and 8, Carroll Township, Washington County, Pennsylvania; Secretary, Pennsylvania State Council of Geography Teachers; Allene Walker, Geography, Grades 7 and 8, Chartiers Junior High School, Washington, Pennsylvania; Mary L. Griffith, Geography, Senior High School, Canonsburg, Pennsylvania; John Enman, Jr., Department of Geography and Geology, Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pennsylvania; Erna G. Gilland, Consultant in Geography Education and Curriculum Coordinator, California, Pennsylvania.

Section 2. High School and College Geography **Sheridan Room 2:00 P.M.**

Presiding, Harry O. Lathrop, Department of Geography, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois.

Geographic Concepts in High Schools, Ruby M. Junge, Division of Education, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan.

Status of Geography in Colleges, J. R. Schwendeman and Arthur Grove, Department of Geography, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

The Use of Radio as a Teaching Aid in the Social Sciences, Harry J. Vander, III, Texas State University, Houston, Texas.

Section 3. Mathematical Geography **South Terrace 2:40 P.M.**

(Joint Session with Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers)

Presiding, Laura L. Watkins, Lincoln School, Cicero, Illinois; Chairman, Geography Section, Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers.

Geography Among the Sciences, Otis W. Freeman, Head, Department of Science and Mathematics, Eastern Washington College of Education, Cheney, Washington; Formerly, Specialist for Geography in Higher Education, Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

Mercator Projection: Its Practical and Pedagogic Merits, Clarence L. Vinge, Department of Geology and Geography, Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan.

Mathematical Scale Problems, Edward B. Espenshade, Department of Geography, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

The Place of Astronomy in a Geography Curriculum, James K. Anthony, Department of Geography, Tennessee A and I State College, Nashville, Tennessee.

Election of Officers: Following completion of this joint session the members of the Geography Section of the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers will convene for a business session to elect 1951 officers.

Section 4. Gamma Theta Upsilon **American Room 3:30 P.M.**

Presiding, Warren Strain, Department of Geography, State Teachers College, Slippery Rock, Pennsylvania.

Secretary, Ina C. Robertson, Department of Geography, State Teachers College, Valley City, North Dakota.

Growth of the Fraternity and Problems of the Vice-President, Thomas F. Barton, Department of Geography, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

The Proposed New Constitution, Panel, Veva K. Dean, State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania; Ovid M. McMillion, Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D.C.; Mary Jo Read, State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Election of Officers.

Annual Banquet 6:30 P.M. **Michigan Room**

Announcement of the Richard Elwood Dodge and Ray Hughes Whitbeck prizes.

Presentation of the Distinguished Service Award.

Address, Dr. George H. T. Kimble, Director, American Geographical Society of New York, *The Role of Geography at the Mid-Century.*

Mixer 9:30 P.M. **East Lounge**

The National Council of Geography Teachers and the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers will hold a joint mixer in the East Lounge immediately following the two separate banquets.

Saturday, November 25, 1950

9:00 A.M. Second General Session **East Lounge**

Presiding, Harry O. Lathrop, First Vice-President, National Council of Geography Teachers; Department of Geography, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois.

Some Geographic Contributions to Conservation Education, Wesley Calef, Department of Geography, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

Learning Readiness in Elementary Geography, George T. Renner, Department of Geography, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York.

Civilization's Most Valuable Resource, Leaders: Wherefrom and Why Therefrom, Stephen S. Visher, Department of Geography, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

The Global Distribution of Primary Governmental Types: its Significance and its Claim for Inclusion in a Geographic Curriculum, James R. Beck, Department of Geography, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

10:40 A.M. Conservation Section (Joint sectional meeting with the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers **Sheridan Room**

Presiding, Edward Ray, Conservation Education Consultant, Michigan Department of Conservation.

A History of the Great Lakes Area, Helen Martin, Research Geologist, Geological Survey Division, Michigan Department of Conservation.

Reforestation and High School Biology, Lida Rogers, Holland Senior High School, Holland, Michigan.

How to Present Conservation in the Elementary Grades, James M. Sanders, Department of Science, Chicago Teachers College, Chicago, Illinois.

12:15 P.M. Luncheon (groups free to make plans)

2:00 P.M. Fourth Annual General Assembly **East Lounge**

(Attendance at this meeting is restricted to members)

Our Thirty-sixth Year, M. Melvina Svec, State Teachers College, Oswego, New York.

Financial Status of the National Council, John H. Garland, University of Illinois.

The Planning Committee, Katheryne T. Whittemore, State Teachers College, Buffalo, New York.

Field and Travel Experience for Teachers, Pauline Schwartz, State Teachers College, New Haven, Connecticut.

National Survey of Geography in the High Schools, Lillian E. Worley, University of Tennessee.

New Committees; UNESCO Contacts, Loyal Durand, Jr., University of Tennessee.

In Appreciation, Mary Viola Phillips, New Kensington, Pennsylvania.

A New Administration, Alice M. Foster, University of Chicago.

Prospects for 1951, Harry O. Lathrop, Illinois State Normal University.

Revision of the Constitution, Clyde F. Kohn, Northwestern University.

The WOTP World Convention, Edna G. Gilland.

Loyal Durand, Jr., *President*

GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLICATIONS

Executive Committee on Southern Illinois. **Southern Illinois.** The University of Illinois Press, Urbana, Illinois. 1949. 193 pages, 70 figures. Paper-bound, $2.00; Cloth-bound, $3.00.

The sixteen southernmost counties of Illinois cover an area of 6,160 square miles in the very heart of the Mississippi valley—roughly 500 miles from Minneapolis or New Orleans or Pittsburgh. To those who automatically think of Illinois as almost synonymous with Corn Belt these southern counties have geographical features which must come as a shock. Less than 30 per cent is level land (having less than a 2 per cent slope) whilst one county has as little as 8.4. Out of the 400,000 people more than a quarter depend upon agriculture and forestry, nearly a sixth on mining and only a tenth on manufacturing. Fundamentally the land is poor and the development of specialist types of farming such as the growing of apples, peaches and vegetables is rendered difficult by distance from markets as well as lack of capital. Consequently the Committee on Southern Illinois came into being to study the complex problems involved and agreed that their first objective should be to make a complete and objective inventory of the resources of the area and to appraise their present state of development and utilization. Twenty-eight authors have combined in writing this well produced and well illustrated report which resulted. Professor T. F. Barton (now of Indiana) contributes the brief but adequate first chapter on Physical Geography (including climatology) in which the basic physical difficulties of the region are stressed—the ill-drained clay pan soils of the glaciated north and the swampy flood-plains of the south alike present problems. Climatically most of the area has 190 days without killing frosts and the extreme south over 210. In the account of history and culture Mr. J. W. Allen points out that the people are descended from "plantation-minded settlers from the south-eastern states" and so are culturally very different from the people further north. In an interesting study of population trends the conclusion is reached that this is an area producing more young people than the existing economy can support and hence with an urban-ward and out-of-state migration.

A group of authors is responsible for the agricultural picture and stresses the low crop yields and the marked dependance on livestock products despite the existence locally of conditions highly suitable for intensive horticulture and a high reputation for early apples. Forest and mineral resources are considered in detail. Coal is present in abundance: the two problems are transportation to consuming centres and the competition of the well-known low volatile coking coal of the east more immediately suitable for such purposes as metallurgical coke than the high volatile Illinois coal.

In turn water resources, wild life, recreation, transportation and varied aspects of business and industry are fully considered and the whole forms a survey which is in many ways a model of its kind. It remains basically objective, tho the Committee gives its summary and recommendations in the first section of the book. The essential need is seen to be the creation of more and diverse opportunities of employment by introducing manufactures, restoring idle land by tree-planting, modifying and improving farming practice and development of recreational facilities.

University of London L. Dudley Stamp

Marion I. Newbigin, Third Edition revised under the editorship of R. J. Harrison Church. **Southern Europe: A Regional and Economic Geography of the Mediterranean Lands.** 404 pages, 103 maps and diagrams. Index. E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York, 1949.

This revision of the well-known earlier editions of *Southern Europe* by Dr. Newbigin presents a timely interpretation of post-war trends in Switzerland, Italy, the Iberian

Peninsula, Greece and Albania. Preceding the fourteen chapters devoted to the above countries are three general chapters dealing with the Mediterranean Sea, structure and relief of land-forms, climate, vegetation and land utilization. Mr. Church, as editor of the third edition, has called upon specialists of the various countries to deal with recent changes while maps and diagrams, which include new boundaries, are correct as of 1947.

The physical geography, strongly emphasized in the book, has been little changed from the first edition, and serves as a background for the integration of the human geography. Following the discussion of the different political units is a statistical summary with a well-documented bibliography for additional readings.

Universities and colleges that do not offer a course dealing exclusively with southern Europe will find the book valuable as a supplementary text for a more inclusive European geography course or as a reference book. This book, as a text, is of sufficient depth to challenge advanced students of geography while other students will likewise find it helpful in many problems of southern European geography.

Indiana University E. A. STONEMAN

EDITORIAL NOTES AND NEWS

Rear Admiral Edward H. Smith, director of Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution reports that the Gulf Stream meanders far from its supposed course. In fact this ocean current sometimes doubles back on itself and at other times looping in such a way that it creates vast eddies which break off from the stream.

Have you read "Conservation Education at the Secondary Level" by J. Russell Storey and "The South Looks to Its Resources" by Richard L. Weaver? Both of these articles are in the October, 1950, issue of *School Science and Mathematics*.

What is the relationship between geography and the social studies? Before geography teachers attempt to answer this question they should be sure they are up to date on the newer definitions of social studies. Have you read some of the recent ones? The following on the teaching of the social studies in the elementary schools is taken from a book published in 1950: "The social studies, strictly defined, are those portions of history, geography, civics, and other social sciences that are selected for use in teaching. As used by an increasing number of elementary-school workers, however, the term is more inclusive, 'coming to include within its compass contributions from many and varied subjects—the social sciences, art, literature, music, and even some phases of science.' In conformity with this tendency in usage, 'social studies' as used in this volume will connote greater breadth of content than is customary when used in secondary schools and colleges.

"The term 'social studies' 'most emphatically . . . does not refer to a particular kind of organization' and 'cannot properly be limited to any scheme or type of fusion or integration.' For example, the term may be used to describe the content of history and geography when offered as two separate and distinct subjects, and also when they are combined and merged as in a study of a local community. It will be assumed throughout this volume, however, that most elementary schools will find it more practicable in terms of economy of time, simplicity of curriculum organization, and effectiveness of learning to unify social studies as much as possible."

Have you seen the new map of South America compiled and drawn in the cartographic section of the National Geographic Society and released with the October, 1950, issue of the *National Geographic Magazine*?